ESTELLA LAWES

Essential Subjects in a Teacher-Training Course for Sight-Saving Class Work

School Life,
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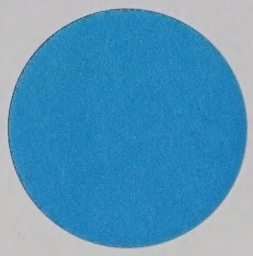

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Essential Subjects in a Teacher-Training Course for Sight-Saving Class Work

Through Organization of Sight-Saving Classes and Training of Teachers for Such Work, Children with Defective Vision are Coming to Their Own—The Opportunity of an Education Fitted to Their Needs and Abilities, Which is the Heritage of Every American Child

By ESTELLA LAWES
Director, Department for Sight-Saving, Cincinnati Public Schools

IN the pioneer days of sight-saving class work there were, naturally, no teachers trained to undertake this specialized form of education. Methods of teaching children with seriously defective vision had to be worked out from experimentation. When, however, it was realized that the sight-saving class movement had come to stay, the call for adequately trained teachers became urgent.

In general, teacher training in all fields is such an accepted fact that it is hardly necessary to discuss it in connection with sight-saving class work. How it is to be presented and what subject matter is to be used is quite a different matter.

Plans Should be Carefully Formulated

Ultimately the success of sight-saving classes lies in the hands of individual teachers scattered throughout the country, probably working almost entirely alone, and undoubtedly under widely different conditions. We do not need to be greatly concerned about the teachers for large systems, such as New York, Cleveland, and Detroit, where supervision is close and opportunities are offered for training while in service. The teacher in these places is well established, and has a certain standing in the community. Entrance into special fields is looked upon as a promotion and, as a consequence, attracts a great many teachers. But what is to be done about the 4,000 or more teachers who, according to the latest annual report of the National Society for the Prevention of Blindness, are needed for classes that should be organized throughout the United States? Eventually these classes will come; more and more interest is being shown in sight conservation.

The superintendent of schools of Kansas City wrote to the foregoing society, to the dean of the University of Cincinnati, and to the superintendent of schools in Cincinnati, saying that he was ready to open sight-saving classes, and requesting the sending of the best teacher available, with training in this special field. At that time some 30 teachers were enrolled for such special training in a summer course at the University of Cincinnati. They had come from all parts of the country, from widely different types of school systems, and with varying degrees of training as a background. Every one of these had been placed for the following school year, and no trained teacher was available for Kansas City. But that group, and the ones which preceded and followed, raised a series of questions which have a direct bearing on the situation in Kansas City, and on other communities establishing sight-saving classes.

Success Depends Upon Choice of Teachers

The first important question to be considered is that of the selection of teachers who shall be enrolled in special courses of this type. "Whom shall we teach?" is the question that most persons ask themselves when a course is under consideration. So often we see teachers who are failures in the regular school work, or who are physically handicapped, trying to enter special class work almost as a last resort. At one time, when the sight-saving department in Cincinnati was new, a teacher was recommended who was partially paralyzed, her face was twisted out of shape, and she had a speech defect. It was stated that these handicaps would not matter because the children probably could not see her very well, but experience proved that her appearance built up such a barrier between her and the parents and the other teachers that it was not possible for her to carry on any phase of this work successfully.

Personality is an Indispensable Requisite

Personality in a teacher probably counts more than any other one qualification. By her ability to meet people and to present her ideas she can make a success of sight-saving classes in a community. We have often said that the first qualification of a sight-saving class teacher is the ability to "flirt with the janitor," meaning that in order to get over the idea, she must be able to meet acceptably all types of people. It is obvious that we can not recommend to cities sending for teachers either those who are physically disqualified or who are professional failures in the regular field.

This brings up, therefore, a second point. Can we take merely a selected group for special training? Kansas City solved its own problem by sending for training one of its best teachers, the year following that in which the superintendent of schools wrote the letter referred to. This, after all, is probably the best plan to follow in the selection of teachers. Such a teacher knows her own school

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Cincinnati provides for the child with defective sight

system, its organization, and the individuals who are responsible for different phases of school activity; the course of study, and the standards of teaching; the city, its street-car lines, and the districts from which the children may be brought into sight-saving classes. It is much easier for this teacher to introduce the new element of sight conservation where the minor difficulties have already been mastered. Thus her administrative duties may be taken care of in half the time it would take a teacher who comes as a stranger to the system.

Teachers Should Have Recognized Standing

Another good point in this method of selecting teachers may be mentioned. It is absolutely essential that a teacher introducing such a new type of education in a community shall have a recognized standing, and the respect of other teachers in the system. If a good teacher is sent away for special training, she will be better prepared on her return to present the work to her fellow-teachers, and to enlist their interest. Further, the probability is that she will be able to gain their cooperation, because they know of her previous work in their own schools. In other words she does not have to "sell" her personality as well as the new idea.

In general, good teachers are happy and satisfied in their own positions. They are not likely to volunteer to enter a new field unless they are sought out, and the new work is represented to them as an opportunity for advancement and for greater service to the community. The ideal arrangement probably would be for the superintendent of schools to call in a number of his successful teachers who have administrative ability and who possess the necessary qualifications, and suggest to them sight-saving work as a new line of activity.

The ideal sight-conservation teacher should be young enough to be plastic, ready to accept new ideas, able to adapt old ones, and to fit into a variety of unusual conditions. Certainly, if she is to teach in a public-school system, she should have a public-school experience in order to maintain standards. Previous work with normally sighted children is essential if children in the sight-saving class are to be held up to the standard of the regular grades. This must be kept in mind always, because many of these children go back to the regular grades with eyes improved, and it would be tragic if several years of school progress were sacrificed. With the right teacher in charge, both things can be done at the same time.

High Standard Required of Teacher

This, of course, presupposes that the sight-saving class teacher qualify for her position in exactly the same way as the teacher of a regular grade. If we are putting a sight-saving class into an elementary school, the sight-saving class teacher should qualify as an elementary school teacher; her standing among teachers is better if this is a requisite. Particularly is this true when sight-saving classes are organized in junior or senior high schools. There the sight-saving class teacher, to hold her own place among the other teachers, must have the same qualifications demanded of regular junior or senior high-school teachers. She is at a decided disadvantage if her experience and training have been less.

Because we must not forget that the ultimate success of sight-saving class work lies in the hands of these individuals who are pioneering, we must see to it, so far as possible, that the right persons undertake to carry on the work. It is these teachers, strong in youth and enthusiasm, with the right training behind them, who will take the ideas which we have gathered up to this time, and through experiment and research bring them ultimately into such form and organization that, in the future, they may be accepted as standard practice. The teachers who come into this work during the next 10 years will do more for the movement in general than has been done in the past 10 years.

What Subjects Should be Taught

This brings us to the second important question: "What shall we teach those who are starting out in this work?" Two groups of teachers apply for training. The first includes those preparing to teach in such school systems as New York, Cleveland, and Detroit. The second, those who plan to open classes in new territories, where nothing is known of the work, and where all sorts of questions and difficulties may arise. Those in the first group are concerned mainly with new ideas in teaching, of learning something of eye hygiene, and of finding out generally what other teachers are doing in classes. When they enter this service, their rooms will be prepared, the children will be brought to them, possibly they will be following in the steps of a teacher who has already blazed the trail and set the standards for that section of the city. At any rate, all executive problems and problems of administration and organization will be cared for.

The situation is vastly different in the case of teachers who make up the second group. The hardest thing for them to find is a place to start. They find no room prepared for them. There are sight-saving class children in the community, of course; but who knows where they are? No one in the system may know anything of the type of work which can be done with such children or the advantages of having sight-saving classes. Most frequently there will be opposition to the introduction of such a very new and radical type of work as that of sight conservation. Not only must the teacher in this case establish her work, but at the same time she must break down barriers.

Local Training Often Most Satisfactory

A teacher-training course in a city school system can give exactly the training which is necessary for sight-saving class instructors who may be added to their department. But it is this second group of teachers who stand most in

need of instruction, encouragement, and help in meeting a variety of situations, a great many of which can be anticipated.

For all sight-saving-class teachers instruction in a teacher-training course is mainly an adaptation of modern ideas to this particular problem. Behind it all, of course, must be a knowledge of eye hygiene. Perhaps this should be merely the acquisition of a simple vocabulary and a knowledge of some of the common diseases of the eye, which will reveal the necessity for sending children to an oculist, and above all, for keeping her hands off in the treatment of cases. It may also give some knowledge of refractive errors, so that a teacher will know the necessity for keeping glasses straight and clean and realizing that even with correction these children do not see normally.

Knowledge of Eye Hygiene Required

Instruction in the organization of a sight-saving class and its management is of special interest to teachers starting in isolated communities. This gives them a knowledge of what kind of room to select, how it should be decorated, and why, what kind of light to use, what sort of equipment to purchase, something of the cooperating agencies which may be available, and how to get children to come into the class.

The history of sight-saving classes is always worth while, and possibly to the newer teachers coming in it is an essential thing, for through this knowledge they learn what has been done in the past and so avoid making mistakes which have been made before. They are thus enabled to take a step forward without retracing what was done in the old days.

Some study of schoolroom lighting is also valuable for teachers starting classes, should there be no superior to see to this. Incidentally, through the work which they have done in lighting sight-saving classrooms, a great deal has been accomplished in the lighting of rooms for many children throughout the country. Eventually we shall come to realize more and more the responsibility of the sight-saving-class teacher for the eye protection of all children in her immediate community.

Difficult to Obtain Satisfactory Teachers

The next important question, which is rather personal, is: "Who shall teach all this?" The content of the instruction suggested is divided into three parts: First, educational; second, medical; third, for lack of a better word, mechanical. In presenting the adaptation of sight conservation to general teaching methods the instructor must have a background both of modern teaching methods and of eye hygiene and should have a very practical knowledge of how school systems work. Teachers who take this training come from all types of systems, and no hard and fast rules can be laid down for their use.

Perhaps one of the most valuable things that can be done in this connection is to carry on a demonstration class. Summer schools for sight-saving-class children are not a new idea at all, and demonstration classes in all fields of education have been operated for many years in our best teacher-training institutions throughout the country, so that there is no necessity for defending the idea of a demonstration class. Much that is discussed theoretically can be shown to advantage in actual demonstration, and a class of this type makes the work very real to any group of teachers to whom the whole idea is new. In watching these children work, student-teachers gain the idea that, after all, children in a sight-saving group are in many respects normal, and that the same problems in their teaching will be met as in the teaching of any other group.

Not All Specialists Are Good Teachers

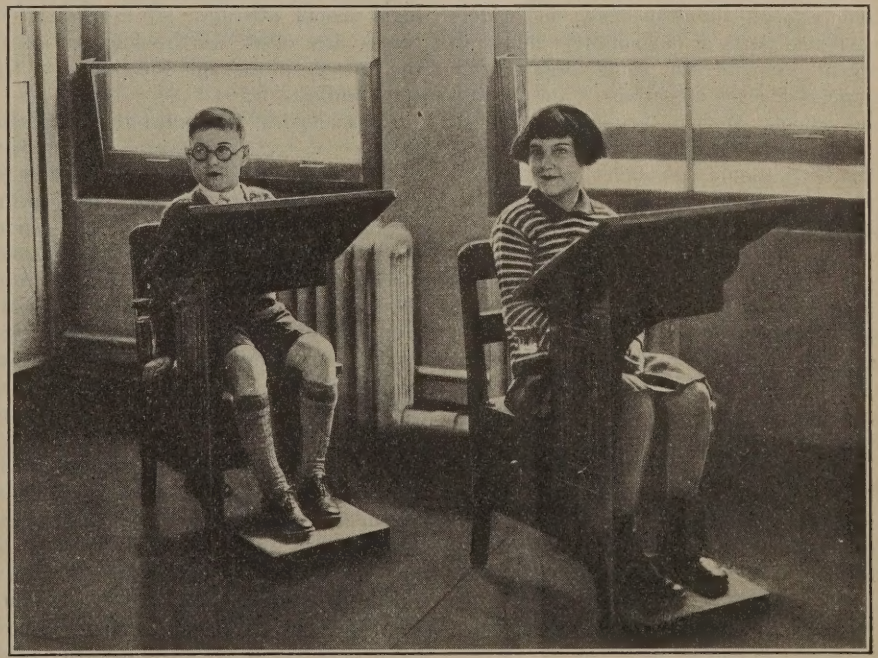
In presenting the medical work our difficulties are somewhat greater than in the educational field because medical men are rarely good teachers. Teaching is not their business. An oculist who is full of his subject is apt to be too technical, and to become so involved in details that the student-teacher loses sight of the larger principles underlying the subject. Often, too, the oculist does not know the work of the schools and of newer teaching methods, and must leave the connection between school work and eye hygiene to some one who has had training in both fields. It has been suggested that an elementary eye-hygiene course might well be given by a sight-saving class supervisor who has studied eye hygiene. In such a course information which is valuable to the sight-saving class teacher could be sorted out and organized. Of course, this should never take the place of work which the sight-saving class teacher ought to have directly with the oculist, but it may bridge the gap.

Mechanics of the Work Important

The mechanical phase of this work is an important one, and includes the selection of equipment, preparation of the room, lighting, and decoration. The work in lighting might well be presented by an expert in that field, one who has some knowledge of the effect of lighting on vision. But here again the technical man is apt to be too technical. We must teach our students the essentials of right lighting and the value of clean walls and fixtures. The teacher should know, too, something of how to proceed in getting these. But this field overlaps again that of the school person who often must bridge the gap between the technical expert and the teacher in the school system. It would seem then that all three fields—educational, medical, and mechanical—overlap, and that, in order to be entirely effective, those presenting these subjects in a teacher-training course should have some knowledge of the work which is being done by others in the field.

A great deal has been said about the ideal place to carry on teacher-training courses. Large cities must look to meet-

(*Continued on page 39*)



Corner in typical sight-saving classroom. Light comes over left shoulder, and falls on raised desks

Purpose and Organization of the National High School Honor Society

Sporadic Appearance of High-School Societies in Different Parts of United States, as Early as 1900, Indicated Advisability of Organization of a Recognized Honor Society for Secondary Schools, Which Should be National in its Scope. Organized in 1919, the Society has a Present Membership of Approximately 25,000

By EDWARD RYNEARSON

President National High School Honor Society; Director Vocational Guidance, Pittsburgh Public Schools

A COMMITTEE on a national honor society was appointed by the National Association of Secondary School Principals at the Chicago Meeting in 1919, and made a report in 1920. At the Atlantic City meeting in 1921, the committee, consisting of Claude Briggs, Lakewood, Ohio; H. V. Church, Cicero, Ill.; E. J. Eaton, Youngstown, Ohio; M. R. McDaniel, Oak Park, Ill.; Merle Prunty, Tulsa, Okla.; and Edward Rynearson, Pittsburgh, Pa., rewrote the constitution, restated its objectives, listed rules for eligibility, and made a report which was adopted by the association. Since 1921 charters have been granted to nearly 800 secondary schools, and between 20,000 and 25,000 boys and girls are wearing the emblem of this society. Other societies of similar nature had been organized before this: The Phi Beta Sigma in 1900, Cum Laude in 1906, Oasis Society in 1906, Arista Society in 1910, Mimerian in 1910, Pro Merito in 1916, and doubtless others.

Widespread Need of Honor Society Apparent

The fact that such societies were organized almost simultaneously in widely separated parts of our country, shows an urgent demand for some organization emphasizing the objectives of the secondary school. If these organizations filled a local need, and it was universally agreed that there should be a society of this kind, then why should it not be national in its scope and be fostered by the National Association of Secondary School Principals (now the department of secondary school principals of the National Education Association)? If there is a pride in wearing an emblem known to the local school, why not have an emblem that will be recognized from Maine to the Philippine Islands?

As stated in the constitution, the organization consists "of chapters in secondary schools of the United States, supported by public taxation or endowment, with standards equal to those of schools accredited by such agencies as the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools," etc.

It is difficult to enumerate all the objectives of the secondary school, but the committee that drafted the constitution stated: "The purpose of this organization shall be to create an entuhsiasm for scholarship, to stimulate a desire to render service, to promote leadership, and to develop character in students of American secondary schools."

Objectives of the National Honor Society

1. Service is interpreted as: (*a*) Willingness to render cheerfully and enthusiastically any service to the school whenever called upon; (*b*) desire to perform thoroughly any assigned service in school procedure or student government, such as acting as proctor, citizenship committeeman, or serving voluntarily on the staff of the school publication, etc.; (*c*) readiness to show courtesy to visitors by acting as guide, selling tickets, looking after concessions, acting as big brother or sister to underclassmen, or assisting students behind in their work; (*d*) willingness to offer one's self as a representative of his class or school in interclass or interscholastic competition; (*e*) disposition to uphold scholarship and to maintain a loyal school attitude; (*f*) inclination to render any other worth-while service to the school, or through the school to the community.

2. Leadership is interpreted to mean: (*a*) Demonstrating a degree of initiative in classroom activities which leads to higher scholarship for all; (*b*) showing initiative in promoting any high-school activities; (*c*) successfully holding school offices, committee chairmanships, and other positions of responsibility; (*d*) contributing ideas which may be incorporated in the civic life of the school; (*e*) exerting a type of leadership which actively and wholesomely influences toward a fine leadership.

3. A student may gain recognition in character: (*a*) By meeting his individual obligations to the school promptly and completely; (*b*) by demonstrating an honest spirit in his class work, and a spirit of cordiality and sincerity toward his teachers and student associates; (*c*) by actively helping to rid the school of bad influences or environment; (*d*) by upholding the ideals of the Christian organization of the school whenever occasion affords opportunity; (*e*) by constantly demonstrating such qualities of personality, honesty, reliability, promptness, achievement, and morality as are indispensable to the finest young manhood and womanhood.

Pupils eligible to membership must have a scholarship rank in the first third of their respective graduating classes, and of pupils who receive their diplomas not more than 15 per cent may be members. Five per cent of the 11A pupils may be chosen, 10 per cent of the 12B pupils, and the remainder during the 12A semester. In some schools the opinion of present members concerning the eligibility of new members is taken into consideration by the faculty. Pupils often know more about their classmates than do the teachers. At least there is no harm in getting their estimates. A principal writes:

> The Honor Society was asked to recommend names of pupils to the faculty committee for selection. The faculty then selected members independently. No one but myself knew who composed the student list. Comparison showed perfect correlation, with the exception of one pupil whom the society was unwilling to recommend. They suggested investigation into his leadership qualities. According to the constitution, however, the election of members in each chapter shall be by the faculty, or by the principal and a committee of four or more members of the faculty whom he may select.

Qualifications for Membership

Most teachers think of pupils in terms of standing in their respective subjects. In order that they may consider all the merits of each pupil, it may be better to arrange the names in alphabetical order rather than in scholastic order.

Blue Rapids, Kans., requires a minimum of 15 points for eligibility to membership in the society, as follows: Class president, 5 points; president of G. R., Hi-Y or other organization, 5 points; other offices in organizations, 3 points; school letter in athletics, debate, scholarships, etc., 4 points; captain of team, 1 point additional; leading parts in plays or operettas, 3 points; minor parts, 1 point; membership in glee club, Hi-Y, Girl Reserve, 1 point; cheer leader, 4 points; assistant cheer leader, 2 points.

The first step in the education of the child is of utmost importance.

Five States now require attendance until the age of 18, and 5 others until 17; but on the other hand, 5 States even yet require attendance only until 14. Moreover, a dozen States require 80 or more months school attendance, while 13 States require less than 50 months of school attendance.

Requirement of little or no educational qualifications for labor permits, and granting them at an early age, tend to reduce school attendance. Seventeen States require an eighth-grade education for the issuance of labor permits, whereas 8 other States require only ability to read and write; and there still remain 6 or more States which appear to have no educational requirements. Laws which demand an eighth-grade education for labor permits seem to be operating satisfactorily.

Penalties upon parents are sufficient in most States to secure compliance on their part with educational requirements, but more than 30 States do not specify any penalty for principals or teachers who fail to report truancy, nor for attendance officers for failure to act in truancy cases. Greater concern and vigilance on the part of many principals, teachers and attendance officers could doubtless be stimulated by imposing adequate penalties upon them for failure to perform their duty in seeing that children for whom they are responsible attend school regularly.

Some Promising Tendencies Are Observable

In recent years some promising tendencies have manifested themselves with respect to increasing school attendance. Some of these tendencies are:

(1) To lengthen the period of compulsory education by making it effective at an earlier and to continue to a later age. The establishment of kindergartens and the requirement of compulsory attendance upon part-time continuation or evening schools.

(2) To increase the annual required school attendance.

(3) To extend compulsory legal provisions to include various handicapped children; also to provide parental schools for delinquents.

(4) To require more education for exemption and for the issuance of labor permits.

(5) To require public relief for indigent children and their compliance with the school attendance law.

(6) To provide transportation for children living beyond the usual walking distance of school.

These changes indicate an effort on the part of educators and legislators of many States to keep pace with changing needs in a changing world. Thus only through the improvement of our educational ideals and standards, and their universal application, can we approach the better democracy which we cherish and to which we are dedicated.

Leeds to Study Industrial Relationships

In an attempt to promote industrial as well as human welfare, and to insure the best possible relations between employers and employed, the Montague Burton Chair of Industrial Relations has been established at the University of Leeds, Yorkshire, England, according to information received from A. R. Thomson, American consul, Bradford, England.

Among other matters, the new chair will deal with conciliation and arbitration in Great Britain and elsewhere, arbitration laws in different countries, methods of work of joint industrial councils, trade boards, and their history, the aims of trade unionism and collective bargaining, and all forms of labor legislation, both national and international. It will also embrace the social side of economic life as distinct from the usual treatment of production, distribution, and exchange from the purely economic view.

Although it will be closely allied to the department of economics of the university, the new chair will handle its subject from different points of contact, with law on the one hand, and with history on the other, and to some extent with the wider analysis of human nature to be found in philosophy.

Meeting the Needs of Foreign Students

An adviser to students coming from foreign countries has been appointed by the George Washington University, Washington, D. C. Representatives of 43 different countries, including outlying parts of the United States where a foreign language is spoken, were registered last year at the university; and it is to insure that young people of these diverse cultures shall gain the most from their study at the university, both in academic achievement and in understanding of American ideals and institutions, that the appointment has been made. The incumbent, Dr. William Stull Holt, holds the degree of A. B. from Cornell University, A. M. from the George Washington University, and Ph. D. from Johns Hopkins University. Doctor Holt is a specialist in the field of history and political science. He possesses an intimate knowledge of international affairs, and he is a man of broad sympathies.

Teacher-Training Course for Sight-Saving Class Work

(*Continued from page 23.*)

ing their local needs, and courses should regularly be given either during the summer or during the regular school term. Possibly large cities will eventually give extension courses for their experienced teachers, as well as for the teacher who is new in the department.

Probably the greatest need at present is for training centers for teachers in isolated communities. These should be organized during the summer, when most teachers can take the training without loss of salary. Without doubt, in a very short time, training centers will be scattered all over the country. If the greatest help is to be given to those who enroll, training classes should not be too large.

Who Shall Teach the Teachers?

During the years in which summer work has been given at the University of Cincinnati classes have seemed to divide themselves into two groups: The experienced teacher group, and the group which is made up of persons in the field, to whom even the most elementary idea is entirely new. It has been extremely difficult to adapt lectures to the needs of these two groups. The advanced work given for the experienced teacher has seemed too difficult for the elementary group, and the elementary work is not particularly interesting to the teacher who has been in service for several years.

One suggestion seems to be worthy of consideration: That elementary courses be given where the whole field is covered by one instructor. This would mean that one instructor give the work in educational methods, in eye hygiene, in lighting, and in administration and history; making very definite connections between these various phases. Supplementary lectures may be given by specialists from time to time.

The second suggestion, carried out in the summer of 1928 at the University of Chicago, is that an advanced course, entirely under specialists in each field, be given for experienced teachers. This offers a possibility of research in a number of different lines, and it is desirable mainly for teachers wishing to do independent study.

After several years of work in teacher training of this type, we are realizing, as we could not have done in the beginning, the ramifications of the whole problem. It is too early to be didactic in the matter. Rather, we should urge free discussion from teachers and supervisors in service, to the end that we may have a knowledge of the best means of training teachers to serve the sight-saving-class child.

New Books in Education

By MARTHA R. McCABE
Acting Librarian, Bureau of Education

ALEXANDER, THOMAS. The training of elementary teachers in Germany. New York city, Bureau of publications, Teachers college, Columbia university, 1929. 340 p. 8°.

In Germany, since the War, there has been rapid change in the teacher-training situation. This volume aims to describe present conditions in the teachers colleges in the various German states, giving the facts as found in the individual institutions as to the prescribed program of studies, the curricula, examinations, appointment, tenure, and salaries of teachers, as well as the training of teachers in service. Any discussion of the kind furnished here is intended to be useful to students of education because it offers a general survey of conditions, and because such facts may be used for comparative purposes. An extended bibliography of material as found in German literature is given.

BARR, A. S. Characteristic differences in the teaching performance of good and poor teachers of the social studies. Bloomington, Ill., Public school publishing company [1929] viii, 127 p. tables. 12°.

This book gives a report of an investigation carried on by the author to observe in action certain selected teachers of the social studies, in order to analyze their teaching performance systematically, and to formulate an objective terminology which might be used by supervisors of teaching. The social studies included history, civics, and geography in junior and senior high schools. The teachers were selected by their superintendents, and were of two groups, an inferior and a superior group, 47 teachers being in each group. The findings are given in the last chapter, in a summary with conclusions.

BURTON, WILLIAM H. The nature and direction of learning. New York, London, D. Appleton and company [1929] xviii, 595 p. tables, diagrs. 12°. (Appleton series in supervision and teaching, edited by A. S. Barr and William H. Burton.)

The material in this volume has been organized into "Units," and the chapter headings appear as "Problems." In the five sections thus presented, the processes of learning and teaching are defined, the various types of learning and the pupil's learning activities are discussed, with a final unit given over to the subject of the activities of the teacher in planning and directing the pupil's learning processes. The latter includes suggestions for lesson assignments, the art of questioning, measuring ability, diagnostic procedures, grading, etc. The material and the methods described are the result of experiments tried out in the University of Chicago, where the author is associate professor of education. Additional references at the chapter ends appear as "Parallel readings." The case studies used as illustrations are unusual, and the absence of hackneyed terms is noticed.

COX, PHILIP W. L. The junior high school and its curriculum. New York, Chicago [etc.] Charles Scribner's sons [1929] xxii, 474 p. tables, diagrs. 12°.

Important problems in connection with the junior highschool type of organization are still being discussed, and there are still changes to be made in the hope of improvement. The author's purpose is to furnish an adequate philosophy for junior highschool teachers, and a program which harmonizes with it. A successful program must provide opportunities for each pupil to select his own work, and to follow and develop his own avocational interests.

DEWEY, JOHN. Characters and events. Popular essays in social and political philosophy, by John Dewey. Edited by Joseph Ratner. New York, Henry Holt and company [1929]. 2 v. front., port. 12°.

This volume comprises a collection of essays by John Dewey that have appeared in the New republic and other magazines. They deal with educational, social, and political matters. It has been the task of the editor to arrange the essays of the two volumes under the classifications: Characters (biographical sketches); Events and meanings; America (including essays on numerous political, social, and educational topics); War and peace; and Towards democracy. The philosophies of John Dewey have been founded upon his ideas of many of the questions of the social and political world, and as expressed by the editor, have been dressed in "the fashion of common speech and circumstance." The reader may in this volume find access to the essentials of Dewey's teaching.

GARRISON, S. C. *and* GARRISON, K. C. The psychology of elementary-school subjects. Richmond, Atlanta [etc.] Johnson publishing company [1929] xx, 569 p. tables, diagrs. 12°. (Johnson education series, under the editorship of Thomas Alexander and Rosamond Root.)

This study is concerned with the individual differences and the learning processes of children in the elementary schools as they are manifested toward the subjects of the curriculum. The problem of individual differences is the problem of learning, that is, the ability of the pupil to profit by instruction. The authors have had some years experience in this field and have collected data relating to child growth and learning which have been tried out in their classrooms. Measuring differences is discussed, and techniques are suggested for the purpose. The major part of the study is devoted to presenting the subjects that compose the elementary curriculum and how children learn them, and is especially designed for teachers and supervisors.

HUDELSON, EARL. Class size at the college level. Minneapolis, The University of Minnesota press, 1928. xxi, 299 p. tables, diagrs. 8°.

This study is one of a number of experimental studies fostered by the University of Minnesota committee on educational research. The importance of class size in colleges and universities has been debated by educationists for some time, and this study will assist in solving the problem. The effect of class size upon marks has been dealt with, as well as its relation to techniques of instruction, cost of instruction, the budget, staff, buildings, etc. The report includes the testimony of the faculty and of the students in regard to the advantages and the disadvantages of large and small classes. The available evidence seemed to show that class size is a "minor factor in educational efficiency, measured in terms of student achievement."

JORDAN, DAVID STARR. The trend of the American university. Stanford university, Stanford university press, 1929. ix, 126 p. front., port. 4°.

This volume by Doctor Jordan comprises three addresses which he delivered at different times: The evolution of the college curriculum; An apology for the American university; and The American university system, past and present. The essays are on the same general theme, namely, the change and progress in the curriculum of the American college and university. The first essay was published in 1887, and it is interesting to note that at this early date the author was advocating certain radical changes in the form of liberalized training in the universities, many of which have since been adopted. The other two essays were published in 1898 and 1927, respectively, and have historical connection with the first essay. These papers were selected from a large number written by Doctor Jordan, as they present the gradual development of liberal ideas in higher education.

MUSE, MAUDE BLANCHE. An introduction to efficient study habits according to the laws and principles governing economic learning. Philadelphia and London, W. B. Saunders company, 1929. 110 p. diagrs. 12°.

This is an attempt to solve the problem of how to possess an efficient study technique by stressing the psychological laws and principles which underlie each study method. The importance of the right study habits by pupils in elementary and high schools is recognized, and for this reason actual instruction in efficient methods of study is given in this volume.

RUCH, G. M. The objective or new-type examination. An introduction to educational measurement. Chicago, Atlanta [etc.] Scott, Foresman and company [1929] x, 478 p. tables, diagrs., music. 12°.

The traditional examination is gradually giving way before the advancing new-type or objective examination in the public schools. This volume presents a study of the reasons for this passing, with the advantages and the limitations of the new-type examinations. Instruction is given on how to construct the new tests, and many illustrative tests of all types are given, the recall, true-false, multiple choice, matching exercises, analogies, etc. To those who believe in the standard test as a more scientific instrument than the new-type test, the author suggests that there can be no ultimate conflict between the two, and that the objective tests will take the place of much of the traditional or essay examination in the measurement of information, at least, if not for the measurement of appreciational skills.

SCHMIDT, C. C. Teaching and learning the common branches. New York, London, D. Appleton and company [1929]. xix, 418 p. tables, diagrs. 12°. (Appleton series in special methods, ed. by Paul Klapper.)

This study is intended for the methods classes in teacher-training institutions, colleges, and high schools, as well as for teachers in service. The author's experiences of 20 years as supervisor of instruction, as superintendent, and as teacher have furnished him with material useful to others in the field. He contends that greater efficiency and economy may be brought about by adapting instruction to contemporary social needs, and by basing methods of teaching upon a sound psychology of learning, thus eliminating the waste resulting from uneconomical and ineffective methods of study. In his introduction Doctor Klapper states that the volume is more than a mere collection of teaching devices and techniques, and that emphasis is placed on the activities of the learner rather than on the teacher.

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